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ABSTRACT

The manual concentrates on features of English and Indochinese which are dissimilar and, therefore, potential problem areas. These areas were identified through: (1) a contrastive analysis of English and Indochinese (Lao, Cambodian, Vietnamese) phonology, morphology, and syntax; (2) an analysis of Indochinese students' errors; and (3) noting the difficulties voiced by the students themselves. To provide insights into possible teaching methods and personal interaction, the author discusses the cultural background of Indochinese students. The teaching of English phonology, morphology, syntax, reading, vocabulary, and composition is explored. Included in the discussion of English and Indochinese phonology are charts depicting place and manner of vowel and consonant articulation and overviews of consonant clusters, suprasegmentals, stress patterns, and intonation contours. In the morphology chapter, nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and derivative process are explored. The review of syntax includes a discussion of word order and negative, interrogative, simple, compound, complex, and contrary-to-fact sentence patterns. In the reading and vocabulary chapter, structure and content words as well as idioms are reviewed. The final chapter focuses on spelling and punctuation and the teaching and correcting of free and guided compositions. An extensive glossary of terms, complete with definition and example, is included. (JK)

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A Contrastive Approach For Teaching English As A Second Language To Indochinese Students

Dam Trung Phap, Ph.D.

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FOREWORD

By Dr. Jose A. Cardenas
Executive Director
Intercultural Development Research Association

I was delighted when the author of A Contrastive Approach for Teaching English as a Second Language to Indochinese Students asked me to introduce this manual as another IDRA publication.

Convinced that the qualifications of a writer are usually the sole guarantee for the quality of his or her publication, I am first going to tell the readers about the author of this manual. A linguist fluent in several languages, Dam Trung Phap was born and grew up in Vietnam. Upon graduating with highest honors from a lycee in Saigon in 1959, he was awarded a national scholarship to study in America. He subsequently took his B.A. in English literature at Miami University in 1962 and his M.S. in applied linguistics at Georgetown University in 1965. Repatriated upon his graduation from Georgetown, he was appointed assistant professor of English and linguistics at the University of Saigon. In 1969, at the age of 28, Professor Phap was made Director of the School of Languages of the University of Saigon. In 1973, he received another honor when the University of Maryland at Saigon selected him as Chairman of its Department of Vietnamese Studies. He held the last two positions until the collapse of South Vietnam in April, 1975. Between 1969 and 1975, he represented South Vietnam at numerous international conferences on teaching English as a foreign or second language in many parts of the world. In spite of his tight schedule, Professor Phap found time to publish two popular handbooks: The Fundamentals of English Phonology for Vietnamese Students (1973) and An Overview of the English Language (1974) and to complete his doctorate at the University of Saigon Teachers' College. He and his family left Saigon in mid-April, 1975. When the pain and the trauma generated by the collapse of South Vietnam subsided in early 1976, Dr. Phap began working as a linguist for Northrop Aircraft Corporation at Lackland AFB in Texas. At Northrop, he wrote and edited training materials in simplified English to be used by Saudi Arabian Air Force cadets, whom he also taught. He left Northrop in late 1979 to join the Intercultural Development Research Association as an education specialist. As such, Dr. Phap has been assisting, whenever requested, school districts in Texas, Louisiana and

Arkansas which experience difficulties in providing an adequate education for ethnic minority children with limited English proficiency. He also teaches English at San Antonio College, education at Our Lady of the Lake University of San Antonio and frequently speaks at conferences throughout the United States on English as a second language and bilingual education.

The present manual is actually the updated and slightly modified version of a component of Professor Phap's doctoral dissertation submitted to the University of Saigon Teachers' College in late March, 1975. It is Dr. Phap's belief that the contrastive approach, especially when reinforced by an understanding of the implications of student-error analysis and of student perception of difficulty, is valid and viable.

As the author likes to point out, the areas of difficulty identified and focused on and the teaching suggestions for such areas presented in this manual are vouched for by his ten years of teaching English to Vietnamese students at the University of Saigon, two years of teaching "survival English" to Indochinese refugees in Georgia and Texas, and four years of teaching English composition and literature to American students at San Antonio College.

The publication of the present manual represents one approach to the teaching of English to speakers of other languages. While IDRA's effort to assist teachers of students who are acquiring English as a second language includes a variety of approaches and methods, we are most pleased that Dr. Phap has been able to capture the contrastive approach in a practical and thorough manual. Future IDRA efforts will focus on other approaches.

San Antonio
March 1980

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My indebtedness to the numerous authors listed in the bibliography is hereby gratefully acknowledged.

In particular, I wish to express my deep gratitude to Professors Robert Lado, Yao Shen, and Robert Di Pietro, who inspiringly introduced me to the field of applied linguistics at Georgetown University during the early 1960's.

I would also like to thank Dr. Jose A. Cardenas, executive director of IDRA for his gracious foreword to the manual; Dr. Gloria Zamora, director of IDRA's Desegregation Assistance Center for National Origin, for her encouragement; Messrs. Hong Vuong and Pradith Phonasa, my Cambodian and Laotian informants, for their patience; Ms. Mary M. Binder, IDRA's managing editor, for her editorial assistance; Mr. Ed Maldonado, IDRA's graphic artist, for the manual's cover design; and Ms. Delia Montez for a beautiful typing job.

Last but not least, I owe a very special debt to my beloved wife and children, who were understanding enough not to mind my neglecting them during the preparation of this manual.

San Antonio
March 1980

Dam Trung Phap

TO THE USERS OF THIS MANUAL

The aim of this manual is to help you teach English to Indochinese students more efficiently through a contrastive approach. This implies that what is similar between English and Indochinese languages (e.g., the subject-verb-object order in English and Indochinese sentences) need not be emphasized since it will be learned quite easily by Indochinese students. On the contrary, what is dissimilar between English and Indochinese languages (e.g., noun inflection in English versus invariability of Indochinese nouns) will be potential problem areas to be focused on and dealt with accordingly.

To identify potential problem areas, I have relied on the following tools:

(1) a contrastive analysis of English and Indochinese languages in phonology, morphology and syntax to pinpoint sources of difficulty facing the Indochinese learners of English;

(2) an analysis of a fair amount of student errors that not only confirms the predictions of the contrastive analysis but also sheds light on troublesome learning areas often overlooked by teachers (interference by native language habits as seen in the pidginlike English-vocabulary-but-Indochinese-syntax sentences; overgeneralization of syntactical rules, e.g., saying *SLEEPED instead of SLEPT or *I AM KNOWING YOU ARE LONELY; etc.) ; and

(3) perception by Indochinese students as to what is difficult to grasp when learning English. Most of them will readily confess that English sentences containing relative clauses ("The boy whose father you saw yesterday is crying now") are extremely difficult and that it may take them forever to master the English verb tense system! This sort of difficulty is also confirmed by the unreasonably large number of errors made because of it. It is also my experience that what is difficult for American students is also difficult for Indochinese students learning English.

Next, I am going to tell you about the cultural background of your Indochinese students. I hope that what I am telling you will give you insights into their ways of life, rather than stereotypical images of them, and make your task of teaching them English easier.

Back in Indochina, teachers were revered by students. As a result, most teachers were authoritarian and aloof. Whatever they said had to be considered to be correct, and it would be unthinkable for a student to disagree with his teacher. School facilities were modest; school libraries were virtually non-existent, except for large urban secondary schools and colleges. The Indochinese method of learning was bookish. Students took notes, memorized them, and frequently recited them verbatim in class. Students rarely volunteered answers to questions posed by teachers, partly because of their fear of "losing face" if giving the wrong answer and partly because they did not want to be "showing off." Thus, a sincere, warm and friendly attitude toward your Indochinese students will make them respond more positively to their new classroom environment. Try to prevent them from being embarrassed in any way. Like other foreigners learning English, the Indochinese will make mistakes. Being as patient as possible with their mistakes and encouraging those who are having great difficulty will do them much good. Some of their culturally-inculcated behavior patterns may annoy you. For example, they will not look directly at you when they speak to you, and they will answer all your questions with a timid YES. Don't be annoyed, because they are only trying to be polite to you, the teacher that they respect. The Indochinese just happen to believe that it is impolite to look into the eye of the interlocutor (in ancient China and Vietnam, anyone foolish enough to look straight at the Emperor's face would certainly be severely punished) and that it is more polite to say YES than to say NO. It will take them some time to change, and they have a great deal to learn about a new culture. Along with lessons on language, give them lessons on the American culture. Tell them, for instance, that in America, it is not acceptable to ask people's age, weight, or salary, and that it is bad manners to be late for an appointment.

Last, here are some pieces of advice I would like for you to heed while teaching the Indochinese:

(1) Many English teachers are prone to talk too much in class! And, to dodge the hard work of learning, some students are good at keeping their teacher talking by bombarding him or her with irrelevant questions. Don't spend time on lengthy lectures or explanations.

(2) Language learning equates intensive, <u>meaningful</u> drills. It is essential that your students know what they are doing and saying while drilling.

(3) In drills, be sure to always give the model two or three times before asking the class or individual students to participate.

(4) Whenever possible, conduct choral drills first so as to give the student time to gain confidence in the patterns and adequate fluency to make an individual acceptable response.

(5) Call on your better students before calling on the weaker ones.

(6) Have fun! A chuckle now and then is a great aid in diminishing tension and fatigue built up by concentrated study. Every student loves a teacher who has a sense of humor. So, tell funny anecdotes and give pleasantly memorable examples liberally to reinforce your teaching points. The problem of student embarrassment can certainly be solved by humor: students will not be embarrassed by their errors if they can all laugh at these errors. Such relaxed moments will generate a corresponding enthusiasm on the part of the students, turning the teacher-student cooperation into a successful and enjoyable one.

(7) Be ready to say encouraging words such as "very good," "that's better," "keep up the good work," when these words are needed to motivate your students.

TEACHING THE SOUNDS OF ENGLISH TO INDOCHINESE STUDENTS

1.1. ENGLISH AND INDOCHINESE SEGMENTAL PHONEMES[1] LISTED ACCORDING TO POSITION OF TONGUE AND POINT OF ARTICULATION

1.1.1. ENGLISH VOWELS

	FRONT	CENTRAL	BACK
HIGH	/iy/ /i/		/uw/ /u/
MID	/ey/ /e/	/ə/	/ow/
LOW	/æ/	/ay/ /aw/ /a/	/oy/ /ɔ/

1.1.2 ENGLISH CONSONANTS

Bilabial----------/p, b, m/
Labiodental----------/f, v/
Interdental----------/θ, ð/
Alveolar----------/t, d, s, z, n, l, r/
Alveopalatal----------/č, ǰ, š, ž/
Velar----------/k, g, ŋ/
Glottal----------/h/
Front glide----------/y/
Back glide----------/w/

1.1.3. LAO VOWELS

	FRONT	CENTRAL	BACK
HIGH	/i/ /i:/ /ia/	/ɨ/ /ɨ:/ /ɨa/	/u/ /u:/ /ua/
MID	/ey/ /e/ /ey:/ /e:/	/ə/ /ə:/	/o/ /o:/
LOW		/a/ /a:/ /a:/	/ɔ/ /ɔ:/

[1] i

1.1.4. LAO CONSONANTS

Bilabial----------/ p', p, b, m /
Labiodental----------/f/
Alveolar----------/ t', t, d, s, n, l /
Alveopalatal----------/c, ɲ /
Velar----------/ k', k, ŋ /
Glottal----------/ʔ, h /
Front glide----------/y/
Back glide----------/w/

1.1.5. CAMBODIAN VOWELS

	FRONT	CENTRAL	BACK
HIGH	/i/ /i:/	/ɨ/ /ɨ:/	/u/ /u:/
MID	/e/ /e:/	/ə/ /ə:/	/o/ /o:/
LOW		/a/ /a:/	/ɔ/ /ɔ:/

NOTE: Cambodian also has as many as 11 diphthongs which are combinations of a vowel with /ə/ or /e/. Examples: /koəm/ "support," /haet/ "reason."

1.1.6. CAMBODIAN CONSONANTS

Bilabial----------/ p, b, m /
Labiodental----------/f/
Alveolar----------/ t, d, s, z, n, l, r /
Alveopalatal----------/ c, ɲ, ž /
Velar----------/ k, g, ŋ /
Glottal----------/ʔ, h/
Front glide----------/y/
Back glide----------/w/

1.1.7. VIETNAMESE VOWELS

	FRONT	CENTRAL	BACK
HIGH	/i/	/ɨ/	/u/
MID	/e/	/ʌ/ /ə/	/o/
LOW	/ɛ/	/a/ /ă/	/ɔ/

NOTE: Vietnamese also has vowel clusters (diphthongs and triphthongs) which are combinations of a simple vowel with one or more of the following: /ʌ/, /y/, /w/.

Examples:

/mɨʌ/ "rain" /duʌy/ "tail"
/ʌwk/ "snail" /awk/ "brain"
/yiʌw/ "love"

1.1.8. VIETNAMESE CONSONANTS[2]

Bilabial----------/b,m/
Labiodental----------/f,v/
Alveolar----------/t',t,d,s,z,n,l/
Alveopalatal----------/c,ɲ/
Velar----------/k',k,g,ŋ/
Glottal----------/h/
Front glide----------/y/
Back glide---------- /w/

1.2. TROUBLESOME ENGLISH SEGMENTAL PHONEMES[3]

Generally speaking, sounds that occur in English but not in Indochinese languages are troublesome to Indochinese learners of English.

1.2.1. VOWELS

Indochinese students will find the following English vowel sounds difficult to produce:

/ɪ/ as in b<u>i</u>t
/æ/ as in b<u>a</u>d
/ʊ/ as in b<u>oo</u>k

Also, they cannot differentiate between:

/ɪ/ b<u>i</u>t and /iy/ b<u>ea</u>t
/æ/ b<u>a</u>d and /e/ b<u>e</u>d
/ʊ/ l<u>oo</u>k and /uw/ L<u>u</u>ke

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Use verbatim repetition and same-or-different response drills. The following minimal pairs and tongue-twisters are useful for such drills:

/iy/	/ɪ/
sleep	slip
sheep	ship
heat	hit
team	Tim
peak	pick

/e/	/æ/
beg	bag
send	sand
head	had
slept	slapped
letter	latter

/uw/	/u/
Luke	look
wooed	wood
cooed	could
fool	full

After a light-hearted practice, ask your students to memorize the following tongue-twisters:

Does that thief still steal?
Will Jim eat the meat with me?
Please get rid of that bad bed!
Luke wooed the girl in the wood.
The pigeon could have cooed all night.
That fool is full of pride.

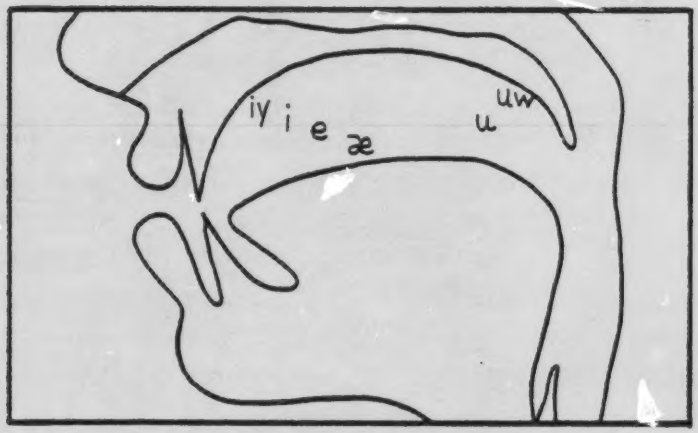
If your students still have trouble producing the above sounds, you can use the following tips:

For /æ/, the spread position of the lips should be emphasized. Ask the students to smile when pronouncing this sound.

Contrasts between /iy/ and /i/ and between /uw/ and /u/ can be made more obvious by mentioning the muscular tension involved. Ask your students to clench their fists when pronouncing the tense sounds /iy/ and /uw/. /uw/ is thus produced with considerable muscular tension and with lips rounded while /u/ is produced with muscles more relaxed and lips less rounded.

It has been observed that /iy/ is quantitatively longer than /i/, but it's a qualitative distinction (namely, difference in tongue position) that is essential. The slight difference in length is actually caused by the tenseness of muscles needed when pronouncing /iy/.

It is also a good idea to tell your students that vowels are pronounced with the tongue moving freely without contact within a small space inside the mouth. Thus, the position of the tongue inside the mouth is the deciding factor in the production of vowels. Looking at the following face diagram and using some imagination, students may find the pronunciation of /iy, i, e, æ, uw, u/ less difficult:



1.2.2. CONSONANTS

The consonants listed below are difficult for Indochinese learners of English to produce:

/θ/ as in th<u>i</u>gh, mou<u>th</u>
/ð/ as in <u>th</u>us, tee<u>th</u>ing
/š/ as in <u>sh</u>e, wa<u>sh</u>
/ž/ as in mea<u>s</u>ure
/č/ as in <u>ch</u>ur<u>ch</u>
/ǰ/ as in <u>j</u>udge

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Use verbatim repetition and same-or-different response drills intensively. Your students may mispronounce words containing the above consonant phonemes by using similar sounds from their native languages. In the following table, the arrow (→) is understood as "may potentially be replaced by " :

/θ/	→	/t, f, s/
/ð/	→	/z, d/
/š/	→	/s/
/ž/	→	/z/
/č/	→	/c/
/ǰ/	→	/z/

The following description of the way the above troublesome consonants are produced should be helpful:

/θ/ and /ð/: Front of tongue against upper teeth with the tip slightly between upper and lower front teeth. Air forced through the opening between tongue and upper teeth. No voicing (i.e., no vibration of vocal cords) for /θ/.

/š/ and /ž/: Lips slightly rounded. Tip of tongue near alveolar ridge. Middle of tongue raised toward palate. Front of tongue grooved. Airstream forced through groove against alveolar ridge. No voicing for /š/. NOTE: If this detailed instruction does not work, simply tell your students to curl the front of their tongue upward.

/č/: Result of a quickly produced /t/ followed immediately by /š/. Voiceless.

/ǰ/: Result of a quickly produced /d/ followed immediately by /ž/. Voiced.

The following minimal pairs and trios should be intensively drilled on:

/θ/	/ð/
teeth	teethe
thigh	thy
ether	either

/ð/	/d/
those	dose
then	den
breathe	breed
soothe	sued

/ð/	/z/
then	Zen
breathe	breeze
bathe	bays

/s/	/š/
sea	she
so	show
leases	leashes
messy	meshy
sock	shock

/č/	/š/
chop	shop
watch	wash
catch	cash
crutch	crush

/θ/	/f/	/s/
thin	fin	sin
think	fink	sink
thick		sick

/θ/	/t/	/s/
thought	taught	sought
thank	tank	sank

After some practice carried out in an exaggerated and light-hearted manner, ask your students to memorize the following tongue-twisters. Encourage them to recite the tongue-twisters during the next class:

Thanks for thinking of me every month.
Thus the teething child cried all night.
Shall she sell the seashells on the seashore?
Charlie is cooking the chicken in the kitchen.
The judge is Jim's generous father.
Chuck sometimes washes watches for a living.
Mitch, watch what you wish for.

Cambodian speakers may find / f, g, z / difficult. They may confuse /g/ with /k/, /v/ with /w/, and /f/ with /b/.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Use verbatim repetition and same-or-different response drills intensively. Use the following minimal pairs and quadruplets:

/k/	/g/
coat	goat
curl	girl
mucky	muggy

/v/	/w/	/f/	/b/
vine	wine	fine	bind
very	wary	ferry	berry
lover	lower	loafer	lubber

Lao speakers may replace /r/ with /l/ and say *FLIED LICE[4] for FRIED RICE.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Use this trick: Tell them to first pronounce /ä/ and then raise their tongue tip slightly without touching the roof of the mouth. This should enable them to produce postvocalic /r/as in car and are. In the production of prevocalic /r/, lip rounding is essential and must be practiced: road, rude, etc.

Use the following minimal pairs:

/r/	/l/
rice	lice
row	low
wrong	long
road	load
wrong road	long load

Drill light-heartedly on the following tongue-twisters, which could be memorized:

I want fried rice, not flied lice!

I took the wrong road home, but you took the long load home.

Indochinese students will not aspirate the English consonants / p,t,k / at the initial position, i.e., words like put, time, kick will not be pronounced with a puff of air, as should be.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Use intensive verbatim repetition drills. Tell your students to hold a sheet of paper in front of their mouth to check on the puff of air when they say such words as put, pick, tooth, kick.

Indochinese will have trouble with English consonants in final position. Transferring their native language habits into English pronunciation, they will produce English final-position consonants in an unreleased fashion. This means that their final consonants will be produced with the airflow from the lungs being stopped somewhere in the mouth. As a result, these final consonants will not be heard at all by Americans. Thus, you may hear them say something like *WE ALWAY WOR HAR IN INDOCHINA, which of course stands for "We always worked hard in Indochina."

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Always pay attention to their handling of final consonants. Use exaggerated verbatim repetition drills so as to concentrate on final consonants.

Also, they may mispronounce / b,d,g / as / p,t,k / in the final position. Therefore, they may not be able to differentiate between:

A		B
cup	and	cub
but	and	bud
lock	and	log

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: What you need here is exaggerated verbatim repetition and same-or-different response drills. Tell your students also that the vowels in colum B words are longer.

1.2.3. CONSONANT CLUSTERS

While Vietnamese and Lao have virtually no consonant clusters, Cambodian has a large number of them. Some of the Cambodian consonant clusters are quite unusual: /kb-/, /db-/, /ml-/, /lm-/, etc. In other words, Cambodian consonant clusters have a distribution that is different from that of English consonant clusters. In view of the above, English consonant clusters are certainly a source of difficulty for Indochinese students.

Indochinese students may try to break up an English consonant cluster by inserting a vowel between the consonants. For example, they may say *SIPEED for "speed."

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Use verbatim repetition drills on such English consonant clusters as /pr-/, /kr-/, /str-/, /-sk-/, /-st-/, /-ksθ/, /-sks/, and /-ŋθ/. The following words and sentences are useful:

product
prudent
credit
cricket
street
strong
ask
fisk
astounding
sixth
asks
strengths
lengths

The accident proves that we should not cross the street carelessly.
To osculate means to kiss.
This is the sixth time he asked me about the length of my stay in the States!

1.3. TROUBLESOME ENGLISH SUPRASEGMENTAL PHONEMES

As far as suprasegmental phonemes are concerned, the following must be focused on for your Indochinese students: word stress, phrase and sentence stress, and intonation contours.

1.3.1. WORD STRESS

Lao and Vietnamese are tone languages. Each syllable in these languages has an inherent tone in it; consequently, speakers of Lao and Vietnamese may unconsciously transplant arbitrary tones into English words, making them sound peculiar.

Indochinese will feel insecure when pronouncing English words that are more than one syllable long: they do not know where the stressed syllable is! Thus, they will have to remember to stress the right syllable of each long

word to be understood by native speakers. This in itself is a feat for them, because English word stress is, more frequently than not, a rather arbitrary matter:

récord / recórd[5]
désert / dessért
démocrat / demócracy / democrátic

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Always pay close attention to your students' pronunciation. If a word has been mispronounced because of wrong stress (*INDÚSTRY, *NECÉSSARY), correct it right away. Also, do not forget the fact that a shift in word stress among related words usually generates a change of vowel sounds in the words involved. Look at the phonemic transcriptions of the above examples:

/rékərd/, /rikɔ́rd/
/dézərt /, / dizɔ́rt /
/démәkræt/ ,/dәmɑ́krәsiy/ , /demәkrǽtik/

Be wary of Cambodian speakers for they may tend to always stress the last syllable as they do in their native language.

1.3.2. PHRASE AND SENTENCE STRESS

Students must be taught to recognize the lexical difference between such phrases as:

(a) wh^ite[6] hóuse and (the) Whíte Hòuse

bl^ack bírd and blɑ́ckbìrd

They must also be able to perceive the subtle differences in the following sentences:

I was here yesterday.
I wás here yesterday.
I was hére yesterday.
I was here yésterday.

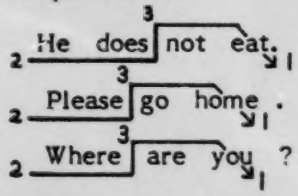
TEACHING SUGESTIONS: Use verbatim repetition and same-or-different response drills. The following tongue-twisters should be drilled on with gusto:

The White House is a white house, but not every white house is the White House.

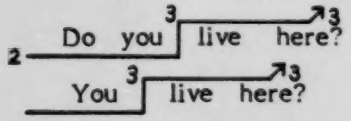
A blackbird is a black bird, but not every black bird is a blackbird.

1.3.3. THE / 231↓ /[7] INTONATION CONTOUR AND THE / 233↑ / INTONATION CONTOUR

Indochinese students will have to forget about their word-level tones and to concentrate on the English sentence-level intonation contours. The / 231↓ / intonation contour is extremely common. It is used in declarations, orders, and WH-questions.[8]:



The /233↑/ intonation is for yes-no questions:



TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: You need a fair amount of verbatim repetition and substitution drills here. Monitor your students' intonation closely.

Follow verbatim repetition and substitution drills with same-or-different response drills using minimal sentence like:

You live here.
You live here?
John is sick.
John is sick?

Chances are that your students may have trouble raising or dropping their pitch at the end of an English sentence. Should that be the case, it would be a good idea to start out with short dialogs that consist of only single-word utterances:

A: Tired? ↑
B. Yes. ↓
A: Why? ↓
B: Why? ↑ Flu! ↓
A: Flu? ↑ Sorry. ↓
B: Thanks. ↓
A: Bye. ↓
B: Bye. ↓

TEACHING THE FORMS OF ENGLISH WORDS TO INDOCHINESE STUDENTS

2.1. NOUNS

2.1.1. INFLECTION OF NOUNS

Indochinese nouns are <u>not</u> inflectional. This means that their form is the same, whether they are singular or plural[9], nominative or genitive. As a result, Indochinese students tend to ignore the suffixes $\{/-S_1/\}$[10] "plurality" and $\{/-S_2/\}$ "possession," which appear to be redundant to them. Nevertheless, they will have to remember these vital suffixes when writing and speaking English.

In speech, $\{/-S_1/\}$ and $\{/-S_2/\}$ are particularly difficult since these suffix morphemes have phonologically-conditioned allomorphs, namely, /-S~Z~-əZ/.[11]

The distribution of these allomorphs is as follows:

/-S/ for nouns ending with a voiceless sound
(books, cats, Jack's, cat's, cats');

/-Z/ for nouns ending with a voiced sound
(dogs, bees, Bob's, dog's, dogs');

/-əZ/ for nouns ending with /S,Z,š,ž,č,ǰ/
(buses, roses, dishes, Doris', George's).

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Explanation of the above rules must be reinforced by intensive verbatim repetition drills.

Follow repetition drills with transformation drills in which you provide singular nouns that your students will pluralize. Pay attention to their production of the plural endings.

Do the same for $\{/-S_2/\}$ by providing the possessor and the possessee (Jack - house) that the students will combine into a meaningful phrase (Jack's house).

NOTE: Now and then, Indochinese students may put the possessor after the possessee (* HOUSE JACK'S) because of interference from native linguistic habits.

2.1.2. PLURAL FORM OF IRREGULAR NOUNS

The existence of irregular nouns in English (mouse/ mice, goose/geese, woman/women, deer/deer) does make the life of Indochinese learners of English difficult!

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Make a list of common irregular nouns in English showing their singular and plural forms. Check on these forms every now and then, and encourage your sudents to memorize the list.

Use transformation drills in which you provide singular forms that your students will pluralize (ox/oxen). You can also provide plural forms that they singularize (mice/mouse).

Remind them that the allomorphs of $\{/\text{-}S_2/\}$ "possession" still apply to irregular nouns:

The mouse's tail.
The mice's tails.
The woman's husband.
The women's liberation.

Watch for such mistakes as *MOUSES, *DEERS, *GOOSES. Correct them on the spot.

Also, check on the spelling of plural and possessive forms of nouns, as Indochinese students--like their American friends--tend to ignore the apostrophe in the possessive forms (*THE TEACHERS DUTY, *THAT MOUSES TAIL) and to add an unnecessary apostrophe to their plural forms (*MY CATS' AND DOGS' ARE ALL HERE.)

2.1.3. COUNT NOUNS AND MASS NOUNS

Indochinese languages do not distinguish between count nouns and mass nouns; hence, syntactical structures related to English count nouns and mass nouns will cause learning difficulties for Indochinese students. Errors like the following will be common:

*I EAT MANY RICES EVERY DAY.
*WE SAW MUCH CAR.

The problem is aggravated by the fact that some mass nouns look like count nouns in a sentence like "We bought 4 coffees and 3 milks," where the nouns of measurement or unit have been omitted (4 cups of coffee and 3 glasses of milk).

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: It is fortunate that there are far more count nouns than there are mass nouns in English! Make a list of the most common mass nouns (water, air, energy, etc.); ask the students to memorize the list. Tell them to treat these mass nouns as singular.

2.1.4. "A" OR "AN" BEFORE A NOUN?

The English indefinite article is a morpheme with two phonologically-conditioned allomorphs, namely, {a ~ an}. Though the choice between "a" and "an" is quite automatic for native speakers, it is one of the many little problems plaguing foreign learners of English.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Your students must be told about and drilled on the proper use of "a" and "an." They must know what the vowel sounds of English are since "an" must be used immediately before a word beginning with a vowel sound (an apple, an intelligent boy, an honest citizen). They should also know that certain consonants found at the beginning of abbreviations or acronyms (S.O.S., M.D., R.N.) count as vowels: An M.D. met an R.N.

Use completion drills (orally or in writing) in which you leave blanks for the students to fill in the proper forms of the indefinite article. Example:

I want ____ apple and ____ pear.
That was ____ historic achievement.
My father is ____ M.D., not ____ lawyer.

Also note that Indochinese students tend to use the numeral one instead of "a" or "an." While in some instances this replacement is OK, they should know that one is not always interchangeable with "a" or "an."

2.2. PRONOUNS

Terms of kinship (father, brother, uncle), terms of deference (God, ancestor, His Majesty), as well as terms describing occupations (professor, doctor, sergeant, clerk) are used as personal pronouns in Indochinese languages. Thus, just by hearing the pronouns being used, one knows immediately the exact relationship and attitude between the interlocutors.[12] But because all of such numerous delicate Indochinese personal pronouns do not inflect at all, Indochinese students will find English pronouns--though much smaller in number—difficult to handle because of their inflection (I/My/Mine/Me). As a result, you may see or hear such faulty sentences written or spoken by Indochinese students as:

* HIM GAVE MONEY TO WE.
* MINE BOOK IS NOT YOU BOOK.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Explain the rules briefly; then use substitution and transformation drills to reinforce the rules. Examples:

SUBSTITUTION DRILL (choral and individual)

T: Class, listen to me: "This book belongs to me; it's my book. Now, if I say 'you,' you will say, 'This book belongs to you; it's your book.' OK? Ready?"

T: Him

S: This book belongs to him; it's his book.

TRANSFORMATION DRILL (choral and individual)

T: In this practice, I will say a sentence and you will change it into another. For example, after I say, "This is her book," you will say "It's hers." OK? Ready?

T: This is my book.

S: It's mine.

Indochinese syntax allows the first-person singular pronoun to be the first subject in a multiple-subject sentence (TÔI VÀ ANH LÀ BẠN *"I and you are friends").

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Tell your students to put "I" after other subjects.

2.3. VERBS

2.3.1. INFLECTION OF REGULAR VERBS

As can be easily assumed, Indochinese verbs do not inflect at all. To indicate the concept of time for a verb, when necessary, structure words (meaning something like "in progress," "already taken place," or "to be taking place") could be placed in front of or after the verb. However, context is often sufficient to imply whether something has happened, is happening, or will happen. Accordingly, it is not difficult to see why Indochinese students are convinced that Englisn verb tenses are both redundant and almost impossible to master!

They have trouble with the morpheme {/-S$_3$/} "3rd person singular present tense marker," which happens to have the same allomorphs and the same distribution as the {/-S$_1$/} and {/-S$_2$/} discussed earlier in 2.1.1.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Explanation of the rules for {/-S$_3$/} should be reinforced by verbatim repetition, substitution and transformation drills. The repetition drills could be conducted in an exaggerated and light-hearted manner so as to maximize the concentration on the {/-s~-z~-əz/} endings of verbs.

NOTE: The existence of a small number of defective verbs (can, could, should, etc.) to which the {/-S$_3$/} does not apply constitutes another problem for Indochinese students. Ask them to <u>memorize</u> the defective verbs.

The morpheme {-ed} "past tense/past participle marker" is another major obstacle for foreign learners of English to overcome. As can be easily predicted, Indochinese students do ignore the "-ed" endings of English verbs. They will say and write sentences like the following:

* I STUDY LAST NIGHT.
* WE HAVE ENJOY YOUR BOOK.

The {/-ed/} morpheme is a suffix with 3 phonologically-conditioned allomorphs, namely, {/-t~-d~-əd/}, which are distributed thus:

/-t/ for verbs ending with a voiceless sound (kissed, picked);

/-d/ for verbs ending with a voiced sound (smiled, wooed);

/-əd/ for verbs ending with /t/ or /d/ (united, divided).

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Follow the explanation of rules with intensive verbatim repetition, substitution and transformation drills. Maximize concentration on the /-t~-d~-əd/ endings.[13]

2.3.2. PAST TENSE AND PAST PARTICIPLE FORMS OF IRREGULAR VERBS

Indochinese may apply the {-ed} ending rules to irregular verbs and thus make such mistakes as:

* I SLEEPED WELL LAST NIGHT.
* THEY HAVE NOT BEGINNED YET.
* HAVE YOU WINDED YOUR WATCH?

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Make a list of the most common irregular verbs, complete with past tense and past participle forms and short but funny (and thus easily memorizable) examples. For instance, TO SWIM is presented this way:

VERB	PAST TENSE	PAST PARTICIPLE
SWIM	SWAM	SWUM

I swam like a fish when I was young.
He had never swum before he fell into the lake!

Introduce these irregular verbs to your students gradually. Being accustomed to rote learning and being visually-oriented, many of them, hopefully, will have less of a problem memorizing the vital forms of irregular verbs.

Use intensive verbatim repetition, substitution and transformation drills to help your students conquer English irregular verbs.

2.3.3. TENSES

The numerous tenses and their specific uses could frighten the Indochinese students at first.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Do not let the tense terminology (past perfect, future perfect continuous, etc.) confuse and intimidate your students.[14]

Concentrate on the most useful tenses, such as the following:

SIMPLE PRESENT---------- I sing.
PRESENT CONTINUOUS---------- I am singing.
PRESENT PERFECT---------- I have sung.
SIMPLE PAST---------- I sang.
PAST CONTINUOUS---------- I was singing.
PAST PERFECT---------- I had sung.
SIMPLE FUTURE---------- I will sing.

Explanation of the uses of each tense should be succinct and reinforced with short and memorable examples. For example, you can say something like this when showing students how to use the simple present tense: "One of the uses of the simple present tense is to express a <u>habit</u>. Listen to this example, 'Whenever Bob <u>goes</u> out on a date, he <u>is</u> terribly nervous!' "

Use intensive verbatim repetition drills to inculcate the uses of tenses, and turn to substitution, transformation, and question-and-answer drills to check on your students' control of verb forms and tense-related mechanics.

SUBSTITUTION DRILL (choral and individual)

T: Class, listen to this sentence: "I saw him yesterday." Now if I say, "met," you will say, "I met him yesterday." OK? Ready?

T: Beat

S: I beat him yesterday.

TRANSFORMATION DRILL (choral and individual)

T: Class, listen to these 2 sentences: "I meet him everyday," and "I met him yesterday." Now, if I give you a present-tense sentence, you transform it into a past-tense sentence. OK? Ready?

T: They swim everyday.

S: They swam yesterday.

QUESTION-AND-ANSWER DRILL (individual only)

T: Each of you will answer a question. Please give me a complete (long) answer. OK? Ready?

T: S_1, was it raining this morning?

S_1: Yes.

T: S_1, give me a longer answer, with verb and everything else.

S_1: Yes, it was raining this morning.

T: Thank you, S_1. That was very good.

T: S_2, did you sleep well last night?

S_2: Yes, I slept very well last night.

T: S_3, what were you doing when I saw you downtown this morning?

S_3: I was window-shopping when you saw me this morning!

Words that often go with past, continuous and perfect tenses (ago, for, since) are frequently misused:

* I HAVE MET HIM A YEAR AGO.
* WE ARE WAITING SINCE LAST WEEK.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Explain the uses of the above structure words with plenty of short and easily memorizable examples. Ask students to say or write similar sentences.

2.4. ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

2.4.1. COMPARATIVE FORMS

The Indochinese formula for comparing adjectives and adverbs is simpler than that of English. Vietnamese examples:

DÀI HƠN "longer than"
HAY HƠN "more interesting than, more beautifully than"

As can be assumed correctly, Indochinese students will find comparative forms of English adjectives and adverbs complicated. They must be taught when to apply the formula:

ADJECTIVE (OR ADVERB) + ER + THAN

and when to apply the formula:

MORE + ADJECTIVE (OR ADVERB) + THAN

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Reinforce your theories with verbatim repetition, substitution and transformation drills.

2.4.2. SUPERLATIVE FORMS

The Indochinese formula for the superlative form of adjectives and adverbs is also simpler than that of English. Vietnamese examples:

DÀI NHẤT "(the) longest"
HAY NHẤT "(the) most interesting, (the) most beautifully"

You will have to teach your students the proper application of the two formulas below:

(THE) ADJECTIVE (OR ADVERB) + EST
(THE) MOST + ADJECTIVE (OR ADVERB)

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Reinforce your theories with verbatim repetition, substitution and transformation drills.

2.5. DERIVATIVE PROCESS

Indochinese languages are no match for English when it comes to the number of derivational affixes. Cambodian contains a very limited number of prefixes, infixes and suffixes, most of which are not productive. Examples of Khmer affixes:

Prefix: /lɔluaŋ/ "flatter" from /luaŋ/ "comfort"

Infix : /sɑmɔ:m/ "beggar" from /sɔ:m/ "beg"

Suffix: /sa:msap/ "30" from /sa:m/ "3"[15]

The few Vietnamese prefixes and suffixes are borrowed from Chinese, with the most active suffix being HÓA (Chinese writing: 化) that can be added to a noun or an adjective to change it into a verb. Examples: VIỆT HÓA "Vietnamize" and GIẢN DỊ HÓA "simplify."

Acquainting your students with the most frequently occurring and the most active derivational prefixes and suffixes of English is certainly an effective way of increasing their vocabulary stock. Knowledge of such affixes is also an aid in identifying the form class of a word. For example, the suffix -IZE identifies a verb (finalize, Americanize); the suffix -TION signals a noun (attention, preparation); the prefix EN- often generates verbs (entitle, enliven); the prefix IN- and its various allomorphs such as IL-, IM-, IR- and even UN- identify adjectives (incomplete, illegal, immoral, irresponsible, uncool); and the jargonlike suffix -WISE pinpoints words as adverbs of recent birth (budgetwise, cost-effectivenesswise).

TEACHING THE ENGLISH SENTENCE STRUCTURES TO INDOCHINESE STUDENTS

3.1. WORD ORDER AS SYNTACTICAL DEVICE

Along with inflection, derivation and structure words, languages use word order as a major syntactical device to convey grammatical meaning. Some languages allow more flexibility than others in the sequence in which words combine to make up clauses and sentences. English word order, by Indochinese standard, is relatively fixed. Nevertheless, changes in the English word order could often result in new meanings and syntactical functions:

Ship that man.
Man that ship.
Only John loves Mary.
John only loves Mary.
John loves only Mary.
John loves Mary only.

Word order is an extremely important syntactical device in Indochinese languages. For example, it is so "sensitive" in Vietnamese that just by shuffling the words around in a sentence different sentences are created:

ANH VÊ NHÀ	"You come home"
VÊ NHÀ ANH	"Go to your home"
NHÀ VÊ ANH	"The house goes to you"
NHÀ ANH VÊ	"Your wife is coming back"
ANH NHÀ VÊ	"Your husband is coming back"

Wouldn't it be disastrous if Vietnamese speakers transplanted this terrific syntactical device into English? Like it or not, Indochinese students will be prone to generate English-vocabulary-but-Indochinese-syntax sentences, which are, of course, pidginlike and unacceptable[15]. Thus, *YOU GIVE ME EAT RICE NO? is a word-for-word translation of the perfect Vietnamese sentence ÔNG CHO TÔI ĂN CƠM KHÔNG? ("Will you let me eat rice?")

As far as fixed positions of Indochinese modifiers go, adjectives follow the noun they modify. For instance, TWO DOGS CHASE A BLACK CAT will be expressed in Lao as ᾳᾳᾳ

REDUCTION DRILL (choral and individual)

T: Class, we are going to play a game. I am going to give you long sentences that you will make shorter without changing the meaning. For example, if I say "This dog, I bought it last week," you will say, "I bought this dog last week." OK? Ready?

T: This new house, I think it's too expensive.

S: I think this new house is too expensive.

3.3. THE MAIN ELEMENTS OF A SENTENCE

Failure by Indochinese students to know what can constitute the subject (S), verb (V) and object (O) element of an English sentence is one of the leading causes of faulty sentences.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Go over the following fundamental notions with your students:

(1) An English simple sentence usually contains an S, a V and an O:

S	V	O
A boy	met	a girl.

(2) The S will disappear if the sentence is an order:

V	O
Meet	a girl!

(3) The O will not be necessary if the V does not require it:

S	V
The boy	slept.

(4) Unlike the S or the O, the V must always be present. The shortest English sentence is only a verb that contains only 2 letters:

Go.

(5) All kinds of things can be added to the S, the V and the O to make these elements more descriptive or specific. Let's look at the sentence again.

S	V	O
A boy	met	a girl

Words and phrases can be added to give the S, V and O more information. Thus, any of the following can be the S:

A handsome boy
A handsome 16-year-old boy
A boy running away from his family

. The V can be modified by any of the following:

secretly
quickly
by chance

And the O can now be any of the following:

a pretty girl
a pretty and very nice girl
a girl smoking a cigar

Now if we put the new S's, V's and O's together we have different sentences varying in length and amount of information:

A handsome boy secretly met a pretty girl.
A handsome 16-year-old boy quickly met a pretty and very nice girl.
A boy running away from his family met by chance a girl smoking a cigar.

(6) Though most S's happen to be nouns, the following forms can also be S's:

PERSONAL PRONOUN:	<u>You</u> can be dangerous
-ING FORM OF A VERB:	<u>Kissing</u> is fun
INFINITIVE FORM OF A VERB:	<u>To kiss</u> is not a sport

A PHRASE: <u>Speaking English all the time</u> is tiresome.

(7) The V's can be simple or complex in form:

S	V
	smiles
	is smiling
The toothless man	has smiled
	has been smiling
	should have been smiling

(8) To be useful, a V must be properly conjugated.

(9) What is said about S's above is also true of O's:

S	V	O
		you
We	like	kissing
		to kiss
		speaking English all the time

(10) Simple sentences can be combined into compound and complex sentences by means of coordinate conjunctions (and, but, or, nor, etc.) and subordinate conjunctions (although, as long as, who, etc.), respectively.

S	V	O	+	S	V	O
He	drank	tea	BUT	I	drank	coffee.
I	like	you	ALTHOUGH	you	hate	me.

NOTE: Conduct intensive completion drills in which the students will provide subjects, making them more specific each time, for sentences that already have V's and O's. Example:

T: Speaks French.

S_1: My friend speaks French.

S_2: My Cambodian friend speaks French.

S_3: My Cambodian friend living upstairs speaks French.

Similarly, completion drills should be conducted whereby you provide S's to which students will add V's and O's, making them more specific each time. Example:

T: The English teacher.

S_1: The English teacher saw a ghost.

S_2: The English teacher has seen an ugly ghost.

S_3: The English teacher must have seen several wicked-looking ghosts.

The above drills can be given orally and in writing. Drills in which students combine 2 short simple sentences into larger structures should also be conducted. You provide the simple sentences and the conjunction. Example:

T: He arrived early. He missed the bus. Yet.

S_1: He arrived early, yet he missed the bus.

T: He kept talking. He was tired. Although.

S_2: He kept talking although he was tired.

3.4. SENTENCES WITH TO BE

Indochinese syntax requires no linking verb (English BE, Vietnamese LÀ or THÌ) when the adjective is in the predicative position.[18] Examples:

LAO: ຂ້ອຍ ມີ ຄວາ (*I HAPPY) "I am happy"

CAMBODIAN: ខ្ញុំ សប្បាយ (*I HAPPY) "I am happy"

VIETNAMESE: TRỜI XANH (*SKY BLUE) "The sky is blue"

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Catch such interference-related errors as:

*I VERY HUNGRY
*THEY BAD AND MEAN

and correct them on the spot.

It is a good idea to use verbatim repetition drills to conjugate the verb TO BE in complete sentences that have an adjective in the predicative position:

I <u>am</u> sad today but I <u>was</u> happy yesterday.
You <u>are</u> sad today but you <u>were</u> happy yesterday,
etc.

3.5. NEGATIVE SENTENCE PATTERNS

Negative sentence patterns in English are a source of difficulty for Indochinese students who are accustomed to a simpler device that serves the same purpose. Negative sentences in Indochinese languages are formed with auxiliaries which mean something like "no," "not," "never," "not yet," etc.

These auxiliaries come before the verb. Examples:

LAO: ຂ້ອຍບໍ່ຮຽນ (*I NO STUDY)

CAMBODIAN: ខ្ញុំមិនរៀន (*I NO STUDY)

VIETNAMESE: TÔI KHÔNG HỌC (*I NO STUDY)

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Catch such predictable syntactical errors as:

*I NO CAN STUDY

*SHE NOT ARRIVED AT ALL

and correct them on the spot.

Use the following formulas for negative sentences:

S + BE (is, was, etc.) +NOT+ADJ: I am not lazy.

S + BE (is, was, etc.) +NEVER+ADJ: She was never pretty.

S+DO/DOES/DID+NOT+V: Bob did not dance.

S+NEVER+V (present or past): Sue never studies.

S+AUX+NOT+V: They will not speak.

S+AUX+NEVER+V: Bob and Sue should never fight.

To reinforce the above rules, you need plenty of practice (verbatim repetition and substitution drills) and patience! Also, watch for possible errors like:

*WE DID NOT DANCED LAST NIGHT.

*HE DOES NOT GIVES AN EXPLANATION.

3.6. QUESTION SENTENCE PATTERNS

As can be assumed, Indochinese syntax generates questions in a simple manner. It uses auxiliaries meaning roughly "yes?", "no?", "what?", "where?", "how?", etc., that are put just after the verb. No inversion of subject and verb is involved. Vietnamese examples:

ANH HỌC KHÔNG?	"Do you study?"
ANH HỌC GÌ?	"What do you study?"
ANH HỌC Ở ĐÂU?	"Where do you study?"
ANH HỌC RA SAO?	"How do you study?"

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Catch and nip in the bud such transfer-related errors as:

*YOU STUDY YES?
*YOU STUDIED HOW?
*YOU ARE WHO?

Teach yes-no questions (including those that look like statements, e.g., "You are studying?") and WH-questions separately since these two types of questions use different intonation contours. Please refer to 1.3.3.

Drill your students again on the /231↓/ and /233↑/ intonation contours. Use verbatim repetition, same-or-different response and transformation drills. Examples:

SAME-OR-DIFFERENT RESPONSE DRILL (individual)

T: Class, I am going to say 2 sentences each time. Say "same" if you think the 2 sentences are exactly alike; otherwise, say "different." OK? Ready?

T: He works today. He works today?

S_1: Different

T: The teacher is here. The teacher is here.

S_2: Same

TRANSFORMATION DRILL (individual)

T: In this practice, when I say a statement with my pitch dropping at the end, you change it into a question by raising your pitch at the end. Ready?

T: He is sick today. ↓

S: He is sick today? ↑

For yes-no questions involving the use of auxiliaries (do/does/did, am/is/are/was/were, have/has/had, can/could, etc.), use the following formula and examples:

AUX + S+ V + O ↑

Auxiliary	Subject	Verb	Object
Do	you	like	it?
Are	you	going?	
Has	Bob	arrived?	
Could	Sue and Helen	solve	the problem?
Might	the teacher	have seen	my paper?
Have	the children	been working?	

The students may have trouble with the Verb slot above. Explain further as necessary. You need a fair amount of verbatim repetition, substitution and transformation drills here.

3.7. SENTENCES CONTAINING TAG QUESTIONS

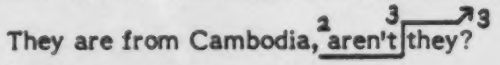
Indochinese languages do have sentences containing tag questions; however, the Indochinese tag question remains the same, regardless of the nature of the main sentence to which it is attached.[19] It follows that Indochinese students will have trouble with the more complicated English tag questions.[20]

You are tired, aren't you?
He is not tired, is he?
Bob likes it, doesn't he?
Jim did not show up, did he?
Susan will be here, won't she?
We should be more careful, shouldn't we?

The problem is compounded by the intonation contours for the tag questions and the contraction of the auxiliaries in negative tag questions.

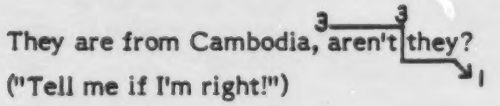
TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Explain the rules for English tag questions. Tell your students that intonation plays an essential role in the use of tag questions.

The rising intonation on the tag question expresses uncertainty or confusion about the answer, and solicits information:



("I am not really sure!")

On the other had, a falling intonation on the tag question indicates a request for confirmation of something the speaker is already quite sure of:



("Tell me if I'm right!")

Use verbatim repetition, completion and transformation drills as necessary.

3.8. INDOCHINESE "YES" AS AN ANSWER

Be wary of the Indochinese "YES" as an answer! They will answer all English questions with "yes." This fact is a cultural transfer because the Indochinese always answer questions in their native tongues with words corresponding to "yes" just to be politely attentive. Hence, from them, "Yes" should be interpreted only as meaning, "Yes, I am listening to you." To get the real message, you must heed the rest of their answer.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Be ready for and nip in the bud such predictable errors as:

*YES, I AM NOT FROM CHINA.
*YES, WE DID NOT SEE HIM.
*YES, THEY HAVE NEVER SEEN ME BEFORE.

The following points should be pointed out:

(1) If the verb in the answer is in the affirmative, the answer begins with "yes":

Yes, I am happy.

(2) If the verb in the answer is in the negative, the answer begins with "no":
No, I am not happy.

(3) A single "yes" to an affirmative question means an agreement with the question:
Do you smoke?
Yes. ("I agree: I smoke.")

(4) A single "no" to an affirmative question means a disagreement with the question:
Do you smoke?
No. ("I disagree: I do not smoke.")

(5) A single "yes" to a negative question means a disagreement with the question:
Don't you smoke?
Yes. ("I disagree: I do smoke.")

(6) A single "no" to a negative question means an agreement with the question:
Don't you smoke?
No. ("I agree: I do not smoke.")

Use individual question-and-answer drills to reinforce your students' ability to handle answers to yes-no and tag questions. Ask them specific questions whose "truthful" answers you can monitor. Example:

T: (talking to S_1, a male Lao student) Are you a girl?

S_1: No, I am not a girl.

T: Do you speak German?

S_1: No, I don't.

T: (talking to S_2, a female Khmer student) Are you from Vietnam?

S_2: No, I am not from Vietnam.

T: Don't you eat a lot of rice?

S_2: Yes. I eat a lot of rice everyday.

T: (talking to S_3, a student from Vietnam) You are from Vietnam, aren't you?

S_3: Yes.

T: Your father is not from France, is he?

S_3: No. He's from Vietnam also.

3.9. TROUBLESOME SIMPLE SENTENCE PATTERNS

The following English simple sentence patterns are troublesome to Indochinese students:

(1)

S	V	ADJ
She	looks	beautiful

(2)

S	V	N	N
They	elected	John	president

(3)

S	V	N	ADJ/N
We	consider	Charles	intelligent
We	consider	Charles	a genius

(4)

S	V	N	PAST PARTICIPLE
They	had	their house	painted

The verbs frequently used in pattern (1) are: look, appear, seem, taste, smell, sound. Those used in pattern (2) include: elect, select, vote, choose, name, consider. Pattern (3) requires these verbs: think, call, consider. Pattern (4) is popular with: have, want, order.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Catch such errors as:

* SHE LOOKS BEAUTIFULLY
* THE CAKE TASTES DELICIOUSLY
* THEY ELECTED JOHN FOR TO BE PRESIDENT

Use verbatim repetition and substitution drills. Ask students to memorize model sentences.

Sentences beginning with IT and THERE are potentially difficult to Indochinese students:

It's cold today
It's warm today.
It was getting late.
There is a book on the table.
There are many books on the table.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Tell the students that the pronoun IT is used as subject in sentences telling time and about the weather, and that the true subject in sentences beginning with THERE follows the verb. Make sure your students conjugate the verb properly.

Indochinese students tend to make mistakes when writing sentences containing such "reverse" adjectives and verbs as:

GOOD
WONDERFUL
NECESSARY
EASY
POSSIBLE
FANTASTIC
PAINFUL
SIMPLE
DELIGHT
THRILL
CHARM
EXCITE
IMPRESS
SURPRISE
INTEREST
FASCINATE
WORRY
BORE
SHOCK
SCARE

Be ready to catch errors like the following:

*WE ARE WONDERFUL TO SEE YOU.
*I AM POSSIBLE TO DO IT.
*YOUR PARENTS WORRIED YOU.
*THEY DID NOT INTEREST THE GROUP.
* I SHOCKED THE NEWS.

The verbs REMEMBER and STOP are especially difficult for foreigners learning English when these verbs are immediately followed by a verbal:

He remembered to sing.
(The singing is after the remembering)
He remembered singing.
(The singing is before the remembering)
We stopped to speak.
(Before we spoke, we were doing something else)
We stopped speaking.
(The speaking was over)

3.10. TROUBLESOME COMPOUND SENTENCE PATTERNS

Compound sentence patterns involving such paired conjunctions as NEITHER...NOR... and NOT ONLY...BUT ALSO... are extremely difficult for Indochinese students.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Go over the following formulas with your students briefly:

NEITHER+V+S+O+NOR+V+S+O
NOT ONLY+V+S+BUT+S+ALSO+V+O

Use the following model sentences in verbatim repetition drills:

Neither is he young nor is he old.
Neither did Bob eat nor did he drink.
Neither will I be here nor will I be in Paris.
Not only is she pretty but she is also rich.
Not only have they robbed the bank but they have also burned it down.
Not only did Jim write Lisa but he also telephoned her.

Encourage your students to memorize the above model sentences. Now and then check to see if they can say or write similar sentences.[21]

Failure to know the meaning of a certain number of "difficult" coordinate conjunctions oftentimes leads to the writing of bad sentences. Errors like the following are common:

*HE IS LAZY; MOREOVER, HE IS INTELLIGENT.
*THEY WORK HARD; NEVERTHELESS THEY SUCCEED.
*WE ARE POOR; HOWEVER, WE ARE UNHAPPY.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Tell your students that coordinate conjunctions are meaningful in that they can show different types of relationship between the ideas of the clauses of compound sentences.

(1) BUT, YET, NEVERTHELESS, HOWEVER are used to signal that the two ideas are in contrast with or in spite of each other:

They work hard; nevertheless they fail.

(2) THUS, SO, HENCE, CONSEQUENTLY, ACCORDINGLY, THEREFORE mark a cause-and-effect relationship between the ideas:

They work hard; thus they will succeed.

(3) MOREOVER, FURTHERMORE indicate that the second idea is in addition to the first idea. These two ideas must be "compatible":

He is lazy; furthermore, he is dumb.
She is beautiful; moreover, she is rich.

The proper punctuation marks (comma and semicolon) that precede coordinate conjunctions should also be taught along with the conjunctions.

Use completion drills in which you provide the first idea and the conjunction only. Example:

T: Bob is sick today; therefore

S_1: he won't be in class.

T: You are nice; nevertheless

S_2: you have few friends.

T: Lisa is beautiful; moreover

S_3: she has a rich father.

3.11. TROUBLESOME COMPLEX SENTENCE PATTERNS

Of particular difficulty to Indochinese students are English sentences that contain relative clauses:

The man who was here yesterday is my uncle.
The woman whose daughter you love does not like you.

Though relative pronouns exist in Indochinese languages, they are seldom used. As a consequence, Indochinese students will just ignore English relative pronouns and, therefore, make mistakes when saying or writing sentences that do require such relative pronouns.[22] Watch out for errors like:

*THE MAN CAME HERE LAST NIGHT STOLE MY CAR.
*HE IS A NICE TEACHER TEACHES VERY WELL.

Indochinese students may either replace a relative pronoun with a personal pronoun or use them both:

*THE WOMAN SHE HAS A BEAUTIFUL DAUGHTER IS HERE.
*THE MAN, I WORK FOR HIM, HE IS VERY KIND.
*THE GIRL WHOM BOB LIKES HER IS QUITE NICE.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Explain the use of obligatory relative pronouns (i.e., when they are subjects) and the use of optional relative pronouns (i.e., when they are objects). Reinforce theories with illustrative examples and plenty of practice. Verbatim repetition and combination drills are useful. Example:

COMBINATION DRILL (individual)

T: I am going to give you, each time, 2 separate sentences. You will then combine them into one complex sentence by means of an appropriate relative pronoun. For example, if I say, "The man is my friend's father. The man is kind.", you will say, "The man who is my friend's father is kind." OK? Ready?

T: The dog belonged to my neighbor. It got lost.

S_1: The dog that belonged to my neighbor got lost.

T: The woman's daughter is beautiful. The woman is Mrs. Smith.

S_2: The woman whose daughter is beautiful is Mrs. Smith.

Complex sentences whose relative clauses involve the combination of a preposition and a relative pronoun compound the problem considerably:

The man for whom I work is my boss.
The girl to whom I am engaged still loves me.
The shoe with which Bob kicked the skunk still smells.
The man (that /whom) I work for is my boss.
The girl (that/whom) I am engaged to still loves me.
The shoe (which/that) Bob kicked the skunk with still smells.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: After intensive verbatim repetition and transformation drills, ask your students to memorize model sentences.

Complex sentences whose subjects are also their subordinate clauses have been found to be difficult for both Indochinese students and native speakers of English:

That he speaks English well pleases his parents.
Where that mysterious man comes from is everyone's guess.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Ask students to memorize model sentences and to say or write similar sentences. Combination drills are also useful.

Another common transfer-related type of error found in English complex sentences produced by Indochinese students is the omission of the subject in one or more of the subordinate clauses:

*WHEN CAME IN, MY FATHER SHOUTED AT ME.
*BECAUSE HAD NO JOB, THE UNHAPPY MAN LEFT HIS FAMILY WHEN GOT A CHANCE.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Remind your students it is vital for each clause to have a subject of its own. (The only exception to this rule is when a clause involves a command, in which case the subject is said to be "implied" or "understood": STAND UP WHEN THE PRESIDENT COMES IN.) Give your students a number of subordinate conjunctions with which they will have to say or write thoughtful sentences. Check to make sure their clauses contain subjects.

Failure to know the meaning (or function) of a certain number of subordinate conjunctions leads to the production of erroneous sentences:

*I WILL BUY A CAR UNLESS I HAVE MONEY.
*ALTHOUGH THEY ARE SUCCESSFUL, THEY ARE HAPPY.

Because of interference from their native syntax, Indochinese students tend to add the conjunction BUT to the main clause of a complex sentence that begins with ALTHOUGH, THOUGH (or an equivalent phrase such as IN SPITE OF THE FACT THAT):

*THOUGH HE IS TIRED, BUT HE WILL CONTINUE TO WORK.
*IN SPITE OF THE FACT THAT YOU TREATED ME LIKE AN ANIMAL, BUT I STILL FORGIVE YOU.

3.12. CONTRARY-TO-FACT SENTENCE PATTERNS

Contrary-to-fact sentence patterns are particularly difficult for Indochinese students because their languages lack such structural formulas to express ideas that are suppositional or hypothetical in nature:

If I were a bird, I would fly to you.
Had I been there, I could have prevented the fight.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Briefly explain the structural formulas for sentences containing ideas that are permanently contrary-to-fact (IF I WERE A KING, I WOULD GIVE YOU EVERYTHING) and for sentences containing ideas that are contrary-to-fact in the past (IF YOU HAD HAD A GUN, WOULD YOU HAVE SHOT ME?) Areas to be emphasized are the subjunctive mode of the verb in the if-clause (WERE, HAD HAD) and the conditional mode of the verb in the main clause (WOULD GIVE, WOULD HAVE SHOT). Also tell the students that the conjunction IF can disappear when the subject-verb order is reversed:

If I were a king...=Were I a king...
If you had had a gun. .=Had you had a gun...

Reinforce the rules by conducting transformation and question-and-answer drills. Examples:

TRANSFORMATION DRILL (choral and individual)

T. Let's play a little game. When I give you a real-situation sentence, you change it into a contrary-to-fact clause by adding the word IF and by altering the verb form. For example, if I say "My father is not rich," you will say "If my father were rich." OK? Ready?

T: Bob is not handsome.

S: If Bob were handsome

T: We have no money.

S: If we had money.

T: They were not there.

S: If they had been there.

T: The teacher lost his temper.

S: If the teacher had not lost his temper.

QUESTION-AND-ANSWER DRILL (individual)

T: Please answer my question with a <u>complete</u> sentence.

T: S_1, what would you buy if you had $5,000?

S_1: I would buy a new car if I had $5,000.

T: S_2, what would you have done if you had been at the party?

S_2: I would have been drunk had I been there!

TEACHING ENGLISH READING AND VOCABULARY TO INDOCHINESE STUDENTS

4.1. NON-EXISTENCE OF COGNATES AMONG ENGLISH, LAO, CAMBODIAN AND VIETNAMESE

In the process of vocabulary acquisition, Indochinese students face a decided drawback: there exist virtually no cognates among English and their native languages. While Spanish or French speakers will readily "know" such English words as DEMOCRACY, VOCABULARY, PRESIDENT, POLITICS and ANTICONSTITUTIONAL, Indochinese students will have no choice but learn these terms "from scratch." This fact would certainly slow down their acquisition of English vocabulary considerably.

4.2. STRUCTURE WORDS AND CONTENT WORDS

Words can be divided into content words and structure words. Content words (also called "full words") make up the bulk of vocabulary, and consist of nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. Structure words (also called "function words" and "empty words") number only around 300 and serve to show grammatical relationships among words in a sentence. Thus, though they are "empty" lexically, structure words are important syntactically and should be taught early.

4.3. TEACHING ENGLISH STRUCTURE WORDS

English structure words can be grouped thus:

(1) NOUN MARKERS: a, an, the, that, those, etc.

(2) VERB MARKERS: can, may, should, will, would, etc.

(3) PHRASE MARKERS: for, across, along with, etc.

(4) CLAUSE MARKERS: but, and, although, unless, etc.

(5) QUESTION MARKERS: what, who, where, how, etc.

In speech, structure words are usually unstressed. This makes them difficult for Indochinese students to identify.

As a rule, structure words should be taught with the grammatical structure in which they occur.

The following structure words are frequently troublesome to Indochinese students: SOME, NO, ANY, NEVER, SOMETIMES, EVER.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Divide the above structure words into assertive forms and non-assertive ones.

Assertive forms include SOME, NO, NEVER, SOMETIMES and are used with the verb in the affirmative. After intensive verbatim repetition drills, ask your students to memorize the following sentences:

I WANT SOME MONEY.
HE WANTS NO NONSENSE.
THEY NEVER THOUGHT OF THAT!
BOB SOMETIMES COMPLAINS.

Non-assertive forms are ANY and EVER, and are used with the verb in the negative or interrogative. Your students should memorize the following sentences after intensive verbatim repetition drills:

I DON'T WANT ANY MONEY.
DOES HE WANT ANY NONSENSE?
DID THEY EVER THINK OF THAT ?
DOES BOB EVER COMPLAIN?
BOB DOESN'T EVER COMPLAIN.

Emphatic sentences with structure words DO/DOES/DID in front of verbs, which do not inflect, are also troublesome.

WE DO LIKE YOU.
SHE DOES LOOK GREAT.
THE MEN DID LIE TO US.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Use verbatim repetition drills. Ask students to memorize model sentences. Catch such errors as *SHE DOES LOOKS GREAT and *THE MEN DID LIED TO US.

4.4. TEACHING ENGLISH CONTENT WORDS

Words of high frequency should be taught first. Frequency of occurrence of words can be determined by referring to word lists such as those by Thorndike and Lorge (1944), West (1953), Kučera and Francis (1967), and Carroll and others (1971).

Many high-frequency words that must be taught at the start could be quite difficult, as reflected by the large number of errors made on them. DO/MAKE, SPEAK/SAY/TELL are examples of such words. Thus mistakes like:

*I DID A MISTAKE
*PLEASE MAKE US A FAVOR
*SHE SAYS FRENCH
*CAN YOU SAY A JOKE?

will be quite common.

A reading passage is the best way for teaching vocabulary in context. For the very beginning stage, you can read the whole passage aloud while your students follow silently in their text. Then you can explain the meanings of new words.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: The meaning of a new word can be explained to your students by one of the following ways:

(1) Pointing at the real thing or its picture;

(2) Acting out the meaning (e.g., While making the dressing gesture, you can say "I put on my shirt" for the meaning of "put on");

(3) Using synonyms and antonyms (provided your students already know these terms);

(4) Putting the new word in a more self-explanatory context. Example:
S: What is an obese person?
T: My obese friend weighs 250 pounds. Yesterday he sat in my chair and broke it!

(5) Giving a clear definition. Example:
S: What is a Chihuahua? Is that a person?
T: No, a Chihuahua is not a person. It's a very small kind of dog.

(6) Translating the word into your students' native language if possible.

As your students become more advanced, you will not have to read aloud the whole passage. You will only pronounce the new vocabulary items, which your students will repeat. Explain these new words fully. Heed the following points:

(1) Meanings are culturally determined. English words and their Indochinese equivalents may have different connotations. A sentence like MY DOG IS MY BEST FRIEND might make an Indochinese fall off his chair, because in Indochina dogs are dogs and never have such a lofty status!

(2) English words and their Indochinese equivalents may denote differently. The Vietnamese word XANH means both GREEN and BLUE, and the Vietnamese word ANH frequently means both OLDER BROTHER and SENIOR MALE COUSIN.

(3) The distribution of an English word may baffle foreign learners of English. It will take them time and effort to understand the different meanings of the word HEAD found in the following sentences:

The dinner cost five dollars a head.
Our farm has 200 head of cattle.
We bought a head of cabbage.
They will head eastward first.
That talk really went to his head.
They are head over heels in love.
We made neither head nor tail of the story.
The boil on my left eye is coming to a head.

(4) Words that are uniquely American (BLIND DATE,[23] JAYWALK. T.V. DINNER) are another source of difficulty for Indochinese students.

The following pieces of advice should be given to your students as they get more advanced:

(1) They should not look a word up until they have read the entire context in which the word occurs.

(2) They are encouraged to make "intelligent" guesses in the light of the context.

(3) They are encouraged to keep a notebook and to enter into it, in a meaningful sentence, every new vocabulary item they encounter.

To help enrich your student's vocabulary stock, you should consider the following:

(1) Familiarizing your students with the most frequently occurring and most active derivational prefixes and suffixes in English, as discussed in 2.5.

(2) Teaching vocabulary in terms of collocation, i.e., words that often co-occur in close proximity with a high degree of frequency should be taught as a group. Thus, the word BANK should be taught along with such banking-related vocabularies as ACCOUNT, DEPOSIT, WITHDRAW, SAVINGS, TELLER.

(3) Acquainting students with proverbs, which are an integral part of language and culture of each society:

Out of sight, out of mind.
Look before you leap.
Easy come, easy go.
The more, the merrier.

Though native speakers are advised to avoid clichés, Indochinese students must learn to recognize English clichés. They must be taught that in English, people say BLACK AND WHITE, in just that order. Native speakers also use similes like STRONG AS AN OX, PRETTY AS A PICTURE, DRINK LIKE A FISH, etc.

4.5. TEACHING ENGLISH IDIOMS

English idioms are a source of special difficulty for Indochinese students. An idiom is a group of words whose collective meaning may have nothing to do with the meanings of its components. For instance, the meaning of TO KICK THE BUCKET cannot be obtained by adding the meaning of KICK and that of BUCKET together. While native speakers have no problems understanding English idioms, foreigners learning English are often

baffled by them and may misunderstand them altogether by taking them literally. The following vignette illustrates this point:

AMERICAN GIRL (speaking to an Indochinese boy who has just stopped by to see her, unannounced):

-My dear friend, please GIVE ME A RING before you stop by the next time!

INDOCHINESE BOY (taking all words literally):

-Oh, not that fast! We have known each other for only a few days.

AMERICAN GIRL:

-You must be PULLING MY LEG! I didn't mean that kind of ring.

INDOCHINESE BOY (baffled by another idiom):

-How can I pull your leg when I don't even stand near you?

Do not take for granted that your students already know the meanings of idioms. Very frequently idioms are short and simple, yet they are especially difficult to Indochinese students:

We are looking for him.
Please look after my sick child.
People look up to you and look down on him.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Make a list of the most frequent English idioms, complete with meanings and illustrative examples. Every now and then give your students a number of them, which they will memorize. Ask them to say or write sentences containing idioms already taught.

4.6. TEACHING READING IN ENGLISH

You can follow the steps below to teach reading in English to Indochinese students:

(1) Determining level of reading difficulty by means of cloze tests: Giving a simple cloze test (the first 200-300 words of a reading passage in

which every fifth or sixth word has been deleted) can determine the difficulty level of a reading selection. According to Haskell (1977), if the majority of the students in a class can fill in correctly ("exact word scoring") between 43 and 53 percent of the blanks, the passage will be about the right level of reading difficulty for that class.

(2) Assigning reading selection.

(3) Giving meaning and pronunciation of new vocabularies.

(4) Giving comprehension questions on the reading selection (yes-no questions, WH-questions, and questions that are answerable from inference or implication from the reading selection).

(5) Letting the students read the selection outside of class.

(6) Checking the students' written answers to comprehension questions. Students' answer can be graded.

(7) Checking students' pronunciation and comprehension of vocabularies already taught the previous session.

When teaching reading, you should also know the following points:

(1) Reading aloud is a waste of time, because while doing so the students concentrate only on the delivery and pay no attention to the content.

(2) Special activities could take place during the reading class: teaching students how to use the dictionary, how to summarize the reading selection, etc.

(3) Reading selections can be models from which to teach composition.

TEACHING ENGLISH COMPOSITION TO INDOCHINESE STUDENTS

5.1. ENGLISH SPELLING AND PUNCTUATION

While the Roman alphabet is nothing new to the Vietnamese students, it has to be taught to the Lao or Cambodian students who have never learned French or English before. (The Laotians and Cambodians adopt the Indic alphabet for the writing of their own languages.)

Indochinese spelling is quite phonetic, i.e., words are usually written the way they are pronounced. Making Indochinese spelling even easier is the fact that most Indochinese words are monosyllabic. As can be predicted, Indochinese students will have a hard time spelling English words, especially homographs (WIND "noun"/WIND "verb", LEAD "metal"/LEAD "to show the way"); homophones (THERE/THEIR/THEY'RE, COLONEL/KERNEL); and polysyllabic words (PSYCHOLOGICALLY, UNCONSTITUTIONALITY).

Despite a large number of consistent spelling patterns, the notorious arbitrariness in English spelling will drive the Indochinese, as it has driven countless desperate American students, up the wall! Who can ever assign a phonetic value to the final cluster -OUGH in such words as TOUGH, BOUGH, COUGH, THROUGH and THOUGH?

English punctuation, with its strict rules highly standardized and enforced, is certainly another obstacle to be overcome by Indochinese students who have been accustomed to a "free-for-all" punctuation system. For example, in Vietnamese, a comma can be used to separate, among other things, independent clauses just like a period or a semicolon.[24]

TÔI XUỐNG PHỐ, ANH VỀ NHÀ.

*"I go downtown, you go home."

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS: Markley's Handwriting Workbook (1977) is particularly useful to the Lao and Cambodian students who are not familiar with the Roman alphabet.

You will have to live with the fact that as long as English spelling remains the way it is, spelling errors will be made frequently by Indochinese

and Americans alike. Many a frustrated speller would agree that English spelling is an international misfortune because not only Americans and Englishmen but also all educated people of other countries are bothered by it. Meantime, encourage your students to:

(1) Keep a list of words they frequently misspell, which they should review regularly.

(2) Use the dictionary as a spelling aid.

(3) Break long words into groups of short parts (or syllables). INTERNATIONALLY could be divided into INTER-, -NATIONAL-, and -LY.

(4) Revise their writing to avoid careless spelling mistakes. They should know that much of the trouble in spelling comes from careless haste.

As far as punctuation goes, you should tell the students from the start that punctuation is a serious matter in English. Explain the rules and reinforce them with intensive punctuation practice. Examples:

PUNCTUATION PRACTICE: Insert semicolons where necessary for the following sentences:

(1) We tried very hard however we failed miserably.

(2) We do not want war we want peace.

PUNCTUATION PRACTICE: Punctuate the following paragraph. Do not change anything; just insert the proper punctuation marks.[25]

WHEN JOHN SMITH MY CLASSMATE AT JFK JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL MET MY OLDER BROTHER LAST WEEK HE ASKED ARE YOU RELATED TO HUNG NGUYEN MY FRIEND FROM VIETNAM MY BROTHER TOLD JOHN SURE IM HUNGS BROTHER BUT HOW DO YOU KNOW WE ARE RELATED JOHN SAID WELL YOU LOOK LIKE HIM YOU WALK LIKE HIM AND YOU TALK JUST LIKE HIM TOO

5.2. TEACHING GUIDED COMPOSITION

To teach beginning students to write beyond the sentence level, the following types of practice (here given in ascending level of difficulty) can be carried out:

COMPOSITION FRAME: Example:

The old man	standing there	has	Jim's father
A young lady	smoking a cigar	is	much money
The boys	fighting in class	are	punished
Anyone	taking a break	was	drinking water
	talking noisily	will be	impolite
			happy

From the frame above, ask your students to copy down 3 MEANINGFUL sentences using the word or phrases on the first column as subjects. Reject any nonsensical sentence (* A YOUNG LADY SMOKING A CIGAR ARE JIM'S FATHER). This type of composition practice is good for the very beginning level: it can reinforce the students' basic grammatical skills such as subject-verb agreement, placing modifiers between subject and verb.

REWRITE PRACTICE: As an example, ask the students to concentrate on the following passage:

"Bob Jones is one of my closest classmates. He is as old as I, that is, both of us are sixteen. Bob is a little heavier but somewhat shorter than I. He has a pleasant personality and a good sense of humor. I am so glad that last week Bob became my next-door neighbor, too!"

Now ask the students to rewrite the above passage, starting with "Liz Smith is <u>not</u> ..." Encourage them to use as much imagination as they can. NOTE: Models given in rewrite practice should be brief, simply written, and well organized. As your students become more advanced, the models can include syntactic features that characterize more mature writing (if-clauses, complex tense patterns) and should represent different types of writing such as factual, analytical and critical.

SUMMARY PRACTICE: A passage (either written by you or taken from the readings) can be summarized by the students. You should determine the approximate length of such summaries.

COMPLETION PRACTICE: Your students are to fill in the blanks of a simple and conspicuously outlined composition. Encourage them to be

imaginative. Example:

I am learning English for three reasons.

First,_____

_____

Second,_____

_____

Third,_____

_____

5.3. TEACHING FREE COMPOSITION

As any experienced teacher of English composition can testify, papers — whether by native speakers or by foreigners — frequently are poorly written. Faulty logic, lack of unity, overflow of "deadwood," bad grammar, spelling and punctuation errors, etc., plague their writing. In desperate moments, composition teachers can only wring their hands and wish they had chosen some other vocation!

The Indochinese students' plight is that they have never been taught the fundamentals of American rhetoric, and that their past learning style (rote learning, and hence lack of creativity; unfamiliarity with library facilities and the research process; leniency of native punctuation system, etc.) may compound their difficulty in learning to write free composition in English. Another factor that can put Indochinese students at a disadvantage when writing English compositions is that, compared to the direct, linear movement of the American paragraph and essay, the Indochinese prose seems to be flowery, circular and evasive. Thus, the principles of good writing must be spelled out for them little by little, and a great deal of practice must be done to ensure that they come to grips with such new writing principles.

The free composition curriculum for Indochinese students has roughly the same content as that for American students. The following elements will have to be taught and practiced on, in the order indicated:

(1) Making an outline before writing.

(2) Writing the topic sentence or the thesis statement.

(3) Writing the introduction.

(4) Writing the body.

(5) Writing the conclusion.

(6) Using words of transition and making the transition smooth.

(7) Developing an idea by different techniques (using definitions, facts, examples, contrasts, comparisons, etc.)

(8) Avoiding "deadwood."

(9) Avoiding the vague, the ordinary, the dull.

(10) Achieving coherence and unity.

(11) Improving punctuation.

(12) Improving diction.

(13) Proofreading.

(14) Using the dictionary.

(15) Using the library.

(16) Making note-cards.

(17) Footnoting.

(18) Arranging bibliographical materials.

Once assigned a topic by you, your students would do well by following a specific sequence of steps when they write. The steps below are recommended:

(1) Listing random ideas.

(2) Selecting from list of random ideas those that are most relevant to topic.

(3) Writing thesis statement.

(4) Planning the composition's body paragraphs (each body paragraph should develop only <u>one</u> of the relevant ideas identified by step 2 above).

(5) Writing a tentative conclusion.

(6) Writing the composition.

(7) Checking the finished product for diction, grammar, mechanics, etc.

(8) Typing paper or recopying it neatly in final form.

5.4. CORRECTING A COMPOSITION

All of your students' compositions must be corrected if you do not want to defeat the purpose of teaching them to write. Corrected papers should be returned to your students as soon as possible so as to give them feedback on their writing when what they wrote is still fresh in their mind. Underline the mistakes, and ask the students to correct the mistakes themselves. After the students have "corrected" their own mistakes, check their papers again to see if they have been improved. Chances are that a student may make new mistakes trying to correct his old mistakes! It is things like these that make our job challenging. Anyhow, a corrected paper — as a joint effort between teacher and student — must be acceptable.

Do not use red ink all over a student's paper! Correcting every single error in his composition not only demoralizes him but also takes too much time on your part. A selective approach to student error correction will undoubtedly be a more effective and efficient teaching technique than "all-the-way" correction: some errors are more important than others. For instance, a sentence-level error that obstructs communication entirely (e.g., using Indochinese syntax to write English: *NO STUDY HARD YOU WILL FAIL) should get "priority" correction over word-level mistakes that seldom hinder communication (e.g., *WE HAVE SEVERAL GOOSES LAST YEAR, and *I AM KNOWING YOU ARE LONELY).

Give your students, before their first composition, a list of symbols for common errors, with which they will have to be familiar. The following list is given for your convenience:

SYMBOLS	MESSAGES
sp----------	You misspelled the word.
s-v----------	Verb did not agree with subject.
w----------	You used the wrong word.

frag----------	Turn this fragment into a complete sentence.
ss----------	Correct this faulty sentence structure.
gr----------	Watch your grammar!
t----------	You used the wrong tense.
r-o----------	Punctuate this run-on (fused) sentence.
p----------	Watch your punctuation!
¶----------	You should have begun a new paragraph here.
^----------	You have omitted something.

There will be times when a majority of your students make the same mistakes (16 of your 21 students have ignored all "-ed" endings, for example). The unusually large number of errors on any pattern indicates that the pattern has not been taught sufficiently. Reteach the pattern to the whole class and reinforce it with intensive written practice at the sentence level.

GLOSSARY OF LINGUISTIC TERMS

ALLOMORPH: Any of the positional variants of a morpheme. The endings of kicked, robbed, and divided all have the meaning "past indicator" but differ phonemically (/t/ ~ /d/ ~ /əd/) and are thus allomorphs of the "past indicator" morpheme.

ALPHABET: System of written symbols in which letters represent individual sounds.

ARTICULATION: Production of speech sounds by the contact of vocal organs, e.g., tongue between the teeth for /θ/ and /ð/.

ASPIRATION: Act of producing a puff of air, as with the production of a released stop in the initial position: pat, cub, ticket.

COGNATE: Word related to another word through a common source. English mother, German Mutter, Spanish madre, French mère, and Latin mater are cognates.

COMPLEX SENTENCE: Sentence having one independent (or "main") clause and one or more dependent (or "subordinate") clauses. In the following examples, the independent clauses are underlined:

The phone rang when I was taking a bath.

Because Helen was a great beauty, Tom fell in love with her when they met for the first time.

COMPOUND SENTENCE: A sentence that contains only independent clauses. Examples:

He escaped but I got caught.

Neither are they intelligent nor are they hardworking.

CONTENT WORDS are those like boy, kill, fast, yellow which are inflectional and have semantic content.

DEPENDENT CLAUSE: Also called SUBORDINATE CLAUSE, a dependent clause cannot stand by itself. To make sense, it has to be joined in some way to an independent clause. In the following sentence, the dependent clause is underlined:

The man who was here last night will be here again.

DERIVATION: Process whereby affixes are added to stems to form new words. Affixes are underlined in the following examples: ENGENDER, HATEFUL, HOPELESS, KISSABLE, CATEGORIZE, DISTRUSTFUL.

DRILLS: Types of drills for English as a second language used in this manual are described below:

Verbatim Repetition: Students repeat the cue exactly as given in this type of mechanical drill, which is good for teaching pronunciation, subject-verb agreement, word order, etc.

Chain: Done individually, each student repeats all answers prior to his own and adds his own bit of information. Chain drill is good for practice on complicated patterns; it also requires the learners to listen to each other. Example:

T: You have some money and are going shopping. What will you buy?

S_1: I will buy a shirt.

S_2: I will buy a shirt and a neck tie.

S_3: I will buy a shirt, a necktie, and a belt.

Same or Different Response: Most often used in pronunciation exercises, this type of drill can also be used to check ability to differentiate grammatical functions.

Example 1:

T: I am going to say pairs of words. If you hear the same words in a pair, say "same." Otherwise, say "different." OK?

T: it, eat

S: Different.

T: ship, ship

S: Same.

Example 2:

T: I am going to say pairs of sentences. If you hear the same sentence in a pair, say "same." Otherwise, say "different." OK?

T: We are too tired to study/We are too tired to study.

S: Same.

T: Certainly they want to meet me/Certainly they wanted to meet me.

S: Different.

Substitution: This type of drill focuses on morphological structure of nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc.

Example 1: Single-slot substitution

T: Listen to this model sentence: "I am happy today." Now, if I say "You," you will say, "You are happy today," etc. OK?

T: He

S: He is happy today.

Example 2: Double-slot substitution

T: Listen to this model sentence: "I ate an apple." Now, if I say "He/Several," you will say "He ate several apples," etc. OK?

T: They/Only three

S: They ate only three apples.

Example 3: Multiple-slot substitution

T: Listen to this model sentence: "If I were rich, I would fly to Paris." Now, if I say, "He/Go/London," you will say, "If he were rich, he would go to London," etc. OK?

T: She/Drive/Rome

S: If she were rich, she would drive to Rome.

Completion: This type of drill is good for practice on sentence structures, time expressions which occur with specific verb tenses, etc. Example:

T: This is going to be an individual practice. Each of you will have to complete an unfinished sentence. Listen to my unfinished sentence, and then say the rest of it on your own:

T: I have been here _____.

S_1: for three years.

T: I met him _____.

S_2: two years ago.

T: When he came in _____.

S_3: his wife was cooking dinner.

Reduction: This type of drill is good for practice on pronoun forms, on demoting subordinate clause to phrase, etc.

Example 1:

T: In this practice, you change the noun phrase into a pronoun. For example, if I say, "My house is old," you change my sentence into "It's old." OK?

T: The young man is quite handsome.

S: He's quite handsome.

Example 2:

T: If I say, "When I was young, I was very lazy," you say, "When young, I was very lazy." OK?

T: When it is necessary to spend money, I will spend money.

S: When necessary, I will spend money.

T: They kept on working although they were tired.

S: They kept on working although tired.

Transformation: This type of drill is used to practice noun modification, tense/question/negative formations, etc.

Example 1:

T: He is nice.

S: Is he nice?

Example 2:

T: They found their car.

S: They did not find their car.

Example 3:

T: Students who go to college.

S: College students.

Combination: This type of drill requires the students to combine utterances into one. It is good for practicing on compound and complex sentence structures. Example:

T: The man is a teacher. He's young. He's from China.

S: The young man from China is a teacher.

T: He wants to stay. She wants to go home.

S: He wants to stay, but she wants to go home.

HOMOGRAPH: A word of the same spelling as another but of different meaning and often of different pronunciation. For example, LEAD means both "a metal" and "to show the way."

HOMOPHONE: A word of the same pronunciation as another but of different spelling and of different meaning. Example: PRINCIPLE and PRINCIPAL.

IDIOM: Group of words which carries a particular meaning because of their occurrence in a certain construction. Examples: PUT UP WITH and KICK THE BUCKET.

INDOCHINESE LANGUAGES include Lao, Cambodian (or Khmer), and Vietnamese. While Lao belongs to the Tai family, Cambodian and Vietnamese are important members of the Mon-Khmer subfamily of the Austroasiatic family of languages.

INFLECTION: An English suffix that changes the form of a word without changing its part of speech and its basic lexical content. For example, TALK and TALKED look different, but they are still of the same part of speech (i.e., verbs) and their basic meaning is still "exchange information by speaking."

LINGUISTICS: Scientific and systematic study of language.

MINIMAL PAIR: Two speech acts differentiated by a single contrast, as in SHEEP and SEEP, IT'S A CAT and IT'S A BAT, and YOU ARE TIRED! and YOU ARE TIRED?

MORPHEME: Minimal meaningful speech unit. DOGS has two such units, and RENEWED carries three.

MORPHOLOGY: Study of morphemes and the ways in which they make up words.

NOUN PHRASE: Syntactical construction in which a noun is the central constituent: The handsome young man upstairs.

PHONEME: One of the set of the smallest units of speech that distinguish one utterance from another. The /m/ of "meat" and the /n/ of "neat" are thus two phonemes in English. Phonemes are put inside slant bars.

PHONEMICS: The study to identify phonemes of a language.

PHONETICS: The study of how speech sounds are produced, transmitted and received.

PHONOLOGY: This term covers both phonemics and phonetics.

PITCH: Quality of a sound determined by the frequency of the sound waves reaching the ear — the greater the frequency, the higher the pitch. There are four pitches in English: low /1/, mid /2/, high /3/, and extra high /4/.

PREFIX: An affix attached to the beginning of a stem to create a new word. In the following examples, prefixes are underlined: RECONSIDER, IMPATIENT.

SEGMENTAL PHONEMES are the vowels and consonants in a language's phonemic notation. The English segmental phonemes are given below:

14 vowels: /iy/ "heat," /i/ "hit", /ey/ "late," /e/ "let,"
/æ/ "bad," /ɑ/ "car," /ə/ "bud," /ɔ/ "cough,"
/ow/ "so," /u/ "look," /uw/ "Luke," /oy/ "toy,"
/ɑy/ "buy," /ɑw/ "bough."

24 consonants: /p/ "pat," /b/ "bat," /t/ "toe," /d/ "doe," /č/ "choke,"
/ǰ/ "joke," /k/ "cut," /g/ 'gut," /f/ "fine," /v/ "vine," /θ/ "thigh,"
/ð/ "thy," /s/ "Sue," /z/ "zoo," /š/ "she," /ž/ "measure,"
/m/ "mom," /n/ "sin," /ŋ/ "sing," /r/ "rice," /l/ "lice,"
/w/ "wet," /y/ "yet," /h/ "hot."

STRESS: The force with which a syllable is pronounced relative to that of other syllables. There are four stresses in English: primary /ˊ/, secondary /ˆ/, tertiary /ˋ/, and weak /˘/.

STRUCTURE WORDS are those like a, the, that, those, etc. These have little lexical meaning but play important syntactical roles.

SUPRASEGMENTAL PHONEMES include the following:

4 stresses /ˊ, ˆ, ˋ, ˘/
4 pitches / 1, 2, 3, 4/
1 juncture /+/
3 terminal contours / ↓, ↑, → /

The juncture phoneme is the pause that enables us to distinguish nitrate from night rate. The 3 terminal-contour phonemes are found in the following sentences:

He is here. ↓
He is here? ↑
He is here, → and he is exhausted.

SYNTAX: Procedure whereby words are arranged to form phrases and sentences.

TONE LANGUAGES differentiate meanings among words of similar form by variations (or inflections) in pitch. Each Vietnamese word (or syllable, because Vietnamese is basically monosyllabic) has a tone of its own: the tone (pitch level) going with the syllable MA is an integral part of it, not any less than the consonant M or the vowel A. The syllable MA can be uttered with 6 different tones to signal 6 different things:

TONES	VIETNAMESE SPELLINGS	ENGLISH MEANINGS
Level	MA	ghost
High-rising	MÁ	mother
Low-falling	MÀ	but
Low-rising	MẢ	grave
High-broken	MÃ	horse
Low-broken	MẠ	young rice plant

VOICED SOUNDS are those that are produced while the vocal cords vibrate. To get a feel of the vibration of the vocal cords, touch your throat with your hand while producing a series of "z" sounds: /zzzz/. You will see that the vibration stops when you switch to /ssss/. English voiced phonemes include all vowels and the following consonants: / b, d, ǰ, g, v, ð, z, ž, m, n, ŋ, r, l, w, y /.

VOICELESS SOUNDS are those that are produced while the vocal cords do not vibrate. English voiceless sounds are: /p, t, č, k, f, θ, s, š, h /.

FOOTNOTES

[1]Please refer to Glossary of Linguistic Terms at the end of this manual if necessary.

[2]Based on the Hanoi dialect.

[3]For a complete listing of English segmental phonemes along with example words in which they are found, refer to Glossary of Linguistic Terms.

[4]An asterisk is put in front of a word, phrase or sentence that is either nonsensical, non-English or ungrammatical.

[5]The symbol for the stressed syllable is an acute accent put above it. The acute accent is also the symbol for primary stress in phrases and sentences.

[6]The circumflex accent is the symbol for secondary stress. Linguists also use the breve accent and the grave accent as symbols for tertiary and weak stresses. Thus, the phrase "a busy teacher" has all four levels of stress in it.

[7]/1,2,3,4/ are symbols for, respectively, low, mid, high and extra high pitch. The extra high pitch is used only when there is a sense of urgency or excitement, e.g., Help[4]! /↓/ symbolizes dropping and fading away of pitch while /↑/ signals rising of pitch.

[8]WH-questions begin with WHAT, WHO, WHERE, HOW, etc. and cannot be answered with YES or NO.

[9]A small number of English nouns behave this way: the plural of deer is deer, and the plural of Chinese is Chinese. Some people may think wrongly that the singular of Chinese is *CHINEE!

[10]Morphemes are put inside braces: {cat} or {/kæt/}, {-ing}, {-ed}, etc.

[11]The symbol ~ is understood as "alternating with." The allomorphs {/-s/}, {/-z/}, and {/-əz/} are also said to be "in complementary distribution" or "mutually exclusive."

[12]The first-person singular pronoun in Vietnamese TÔI ("I, ME") — though it means SLAVE or SERVANT literally — may in many instances sound too "cold" and would have to be replaced by other forms. To address a female lover, for example, TÔI must become ANH; otherwise, love is certainly lost!

[13]A number of past participles used as adjectives take the /-əd/ ending: learned/lərnəd/ man; blessed /blesəd/ event; naked/néykəd/ ape; etc. Share this information with your students, as necessary.

[14]Tense terminology baffles American college students, too! If you ask them to say a sentence with, say, the "present perfect progressive tense" of any verb, they will not understand what you want. But if you ask them to say something like, "I have been fishing all day," they will say, "No sweat! I have been using that kind of tense all my life without knowing it even has a name!"

[15]These two words have been borrowed from Chinese via Thai. In Chinese, /sa:m/ means "3" and is written 三, while /səp/ means "10" and is written 十. Thus, sa:msəp/ literally means "3 times 10."

[16]The only pidgin phrase that has somehow been accepted by English speakers is widely used as a form of greeting: LONG TIME NO SEE!

[17]An example of the topic-comment pattern is the following English sentence: This man, I think he stole my car. Topic refers to the person or thing about which something is said (This man), and comment is the statement made about that person or thing (I think he stole my car).

[18]If a noun is in this position, the linking verb is required. Vietnamese example: ANH LÀ LÍNH "You are (a) soldier."

[19]The Indochinese tag question is similar to the Spanish " ¿no?", the French "n'est-ce-pas?", and the Japanese "ne?" in that they are invariable.

[20]The structure word "right?" put at the end of an English sentence is perhaps the closest English equivalent to the Indochinese tag question:

You like me, right?
You don't like me, right?

[21]An average American college student also finds these compound sentence patterns difficult to say and write.

[22]English syntax permits the omission of THAT, WHOM, WHICH when they are also the object of the verb in the subordinate clause. In the following examples, the parentheses enclose relative pronouns that are optional:

This is the man (whom) you met yesterday.
I want to see the dog (that) you bought for her.
That sad matter is something (which) I have meant to tell you about.

[23]In Indochina, where dating is never encouraged, the idea of going out with a total stranger of the opposite sex must strike everyone as one of the wildest fantasies.

[24]This practice, if transferred into written English, will generate what is known as comma splice or comma fault, a serious offense in English composition.

[25]For this type of punctuation practice, the whole passage should be in all caps so that the students will have to decide for themselves where a new sentence begins.

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